

MODERN LIVING

Overseas students in this country suffer from homesickness



The Indian engineer who studied in the Federal Republic and is now a bus conductor in Bombay represents one of the many problems connected with training graduates from developing countries and their professional future. Much has been done to help graduates find their feet at home after studying abroad, and from the many at first disorganised efforts in this direction much information has been collected that gives a fair idea of what problems exist.

There was a time when the papers were full of dramatic reports about graduates from developing countries becoming estranged from their homelands and being reluctant to return home. This is no longer so, a more realistic approach is being taken to the problem.

Dr Abdul Wasse Latiff, a lecturer from the medical faculty of Kabul University, was the 1,000th scholarship holder to be welcomed to the Carl Duisberg Society in Saarbrücken. He was in the company of 167 others holding scholarships from this organisation that is supported by government, industry and private people. The Society's reception centre was opened in 1967 and has proved its worth.

All scholarship holders entering the country are examined here on their professional knowledge and their command

of the language. They also receive their first briefing on what to expect in the Federal Republic and the nature of the course or work for which they have been selected. Dr Latiff, along with many others who have now returned for a refresher course, studied in this country years ago.

The Carl Duisberg Society is not now so convinced, as many were in the early sixties, that students from developing countries spend far too long in Europe, even to the extent of looking for permanent posts in the countries in which they graduated. Graduates or trainees do not become so accustomed to conditions in a foreign country that they no longer wish to return home. Difficulties of adjustment to prevailing conditions do not exist only at the beginning of a foreigner's sojourn but are often felt up to the very day of departure.

In the CDS's international clubs "national evenings" are being continually held at which various national groups discuss conditions in their home countries, present folk dances or songs and provide samples of their native dishes. Activity that goes by the name of assistance is doubtless tiring for the organisers because the pattern never varies much, but such activity is very important.

What Friedrich List once said of America also applies to foreigners in the Federal Republic: "One country I became very well acquainted with in America, and that was Germany." Hans Pakleppa, a CDS organiser, illustrated this with another richly amusing anecdote.

When students from Togo were invited to arrange a folk evening they approached the German leader of the group a few days before the event and said, "We know the various French départements, we know when Joan of Arc lived and who General de Gaulle is; we also know Voltaire and Victor Hugo. But could you tell us something about the history of our own people. What can we say about the cultural traditions of our people? Have you any literature on Togo?"

More importance is attached today to the difficulties confronting home-bound graduates and trainees than those with which they must cope while abroad. Their complaints about antiquated methods, bureaucracy and corruption expose them to the danger of being ostracised as know-all.

Students and trainees who have completed their studies at home rarely shake off the norms and mores of their native communities. Before any reforms can be carried out, however, a clash of interests and opinions is essential, and such an intellectual climate is found primarily in progressive industrial nations.

The future elite of developing countries can learn in the industrialised world that social status is not necessarily a matter of belonging to a certain class. Personal performance is what matters. It is important therefore that psychological problems should be discussed in whatever advanced training courses are being arranged. Seminars could be held at which the difficulties facing the homecomer could be discussed in exhaustive detail.

One of the main tasks facing young planners in developing countries would seem to be to encourage investment, especially long-term investment. It is essential too that the purpose behind a programme should be thoroughly understood.

Hans Pakleppa distinguished between three types of training programmes with such objects in view:

● Programmes with specific reference to certain projects have been given great prominence in recent years. Details of technical and commercial aid are discussed with the people who may eventually be responsible for this aid. Thanks to a more efficient organisation such programmes are now more effective since most participants know before they go abroad what posts they will be returning to.

● In this category are found annual programmes for groups of experts. These are really seminars for enterprising businessmen in the fields of engineering, production, management, export promotion, financial management and management control.

● This group includes for the most part programmes that are largely concerned with demonstration. How important and how promising it can be to depart from well-trodden paths was shown in the organisation of a course that was not advertised in the usual way in the home country but during radio programmes for Greek workers in this country.

There were 500 applicants of which twenty were chosen for the course. Those qualified by reason of their having had years of experience in the occupation in question. One of the conditions they were obliged to accept was that on successfully completing the course they would spend at least five years as instructors in very backward Greek technical schools, in schools that badly need to be expanded and modernised.

(Handelsblatt, 3 December 1978)

The German Tribune

Hamburg, 21 January 1980
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De Gaulle throws a lifeline to isolated Moscow



General de Gaulle, who had to refrain from going it alone for a while and too the line as a result of France's domestic difficulties, has made a come-back on the international stage with two spectacular moves: the total embargo on arms for Israel and the resumption of talks with Moscow, broken off when the Soviet Union invaded Czechoslovakia.

That both moves occurred more or less simultaneously shows up not only the contradictions but also the weakness of French policies. The General clamps down on recalcitrant Israel but France's objections to the Kremlin's policies are reduced to verbal reservations. Like the rest of the world, General de Gaulle has submitted to the realities of the situation brought about by Moscow's use of force.

The meeting of the Franco-Soviet commission, postponed from September to January because of the Czech crisis, has been of considerable political importance for both sides. M. Deleau's retention of the chairmanship despite his move from the Ministry of Economic Affairs to the Foreign Ministry is in itself a factor of political significance.

For the Soviet Union the resumption of cooperation with France represents emergence from an unsatisfactory state of relative isolation. France's re-establishment

nations to self-determination is acknowledged.

Yet General de Gaulle, who after his visit to Russia in 1966 set about coaxing the countries of Eastern Europe by means of a network of bilateral contacts to leave hold of the Kremlin's apron strings, now has to give Moscow pride of place among contacts with the East.

The realities France must face include the precarious state of its foreign trade, which does not allow Paris to neglect Eastern Bloc markets that could well be expanded. Trade with the Soviet Union in particular last year shows that France stands a good chance in competition with the rest of the Western world.

With exports running at 1,300 million francs and imports at 950 million the volume of Franco-Soviet trade was three times the level of 1964, when the first five-year trade agreement between the two countries was signed.

Last year, for the first time since 1963, France achieved a surplus worthy of the name in trade with the Soviet Union. This is largely due to the placing, after initial hesitation, of capital goods orders.

Trade with the Soviet Union still amounts to no more than two per cent of the total volume of France's imports and exports, but Moscow's tempting requirements, including a cellulose factory, a natural gas liquefaction plant and a large-scale commercial vehicle assembly line, make the French feel that the Soviet market is capable of development and that in cooperation with the Soviet Union they need not fear being hard-pressed by a technologically and commercially superior opponent, as might well be the case in dealings with the United States.

Despite the difficulties placed in the way of bilateral trade agreements by Common Market regulations that came



Renewed contacts
Willy Brandt, right, the Federal Republic Foreign Minister, spoke for ninety minutes with the Soviet ambassador Semyon Tsarapkin on 10 January.

(Photo: AP)

into force at the end of the year, difficulties of which Moscow too is well aware, France is still intent on negotiating a new five-year trade agreement with the Soviet Union in March. This only goes to show what importance Paris attaches to Franco-Soviet trade.

The proposed 100-per-cent increase to 7,000 million francs worth of trade by the end of 1974 is obviously valuable enough for M. Deleau to warrant a tussle with the Common Market Commission in Brussels.

Klaus Dörre

(Industriekurier, 11 January 1979)

Tentative attempts at re-opening relations

There should be no exaggerating the significance of the discussions between Foreign Minister Brandt and Soviet ambassador Tsarapkin. They are not sensational, not a volte-face and not a normalisation of relations between this country and the Soviet Union.

They represent but one step on a very long road that may, it can only be hoped, at some stage lead to a levelling-out of the most glaring differences of opinion between the two countries. But endless patience is still required.

The latest talks have not brought any considerable improvement on the state of affairs existing over a year ago when Herr Duckwitz conferred with Semyon Tsarapkin. Since then there have been serious setbacks (the invasion of Czechoslovakia, to take but one example) the like of which can be expected to occur again.

Semyon Tsarapkin has been ordered to reactivate contacts between Moscow and Bonn. This can only be seen as part of the Kremlin's general efforts to erase the occupation of Czechoslovakia from the world's memory.

The Soviet Foreign Minister subsequently showed interest in continuing the exchange, summoning Helmut Allardt, this country's ambassador in Moscow, to the Kremlin on 11 December and giving him a catalogue of questions for the Federal government.

After reporting to Bonn Herr Allardt, it is understood, conferred with Deputy Foreign Minister Semyonov early this

month. Apart from the obligatory protest against the convening of the Federal Assembly, the electoral college that is to elect the successor to President Lübke, in West Berlin, formalities only were discussed. Even so, the meeting constituted a hint that the Soviet government would like to begin a diplomatic exchange.

Of the possible topics the exchange of declarations renouncing the use of force to solve political problems could be discussed until the cows come home and the meeting of the Federal Assembly in West Berlin is unlikely to be solved in the satisfaction of both parties but agreement might be reached on flights between Frankfurt and Moscow.

The bone of contention is the Soviet stop-over at Schönefeld airport, East Berlin. The Western Allies have been informed. The Chancellor and the Cabinet must reach a decision and the Allies be consulted again. This will all take time.

But all in all, prospects are none too rosy, even though the revolution cannot be brought to a halt.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung für Deutschland, 11 January 1979)

Frankfurter Allgemeine

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FOREIGN AFFAIRS

France brings pressure to bear on Israel
PURITY OF MOTIVES DUBIOUS

At the Quai d'Orsay the ban on arms sales to Israel imposed by General de Gaulle is described as a warning shot. The General made the decision without consulting his Cabinet, exercising supreme power in a manner befitting his monarchic concept of the Presidency. Cabinet approval was only a constitutional formality.

The political significance of the ban lies in the explanation given. The Israeli attack on Beirut airport was unacceptable, the French government ruled; unacceptable for Israel's neighbours and unacceptable in the interests of international security.

This time the President's advisers will not have advised him so emphatically against imposing sanctions on Israel as in summer 1967 when an embargo was placed on delivery of fifty Mirage V fighter-bombers already ordered and partly paid for and on the supply of other offensive weapons to Israel.

After French helicopters had been used in Israel's commando attack on the civil



airport in Beirut the General felt it only logical to impose a total ban on arms exports to Israel.

The use of French liaison helicopters, hardly an offensive weapon, in Israel's punitive expeditions to Israel and the Nile valley made it only too clear to the General how dubious the distinction between offensive and defensive weapons can be. With inexorable political logic General de Gaulle came to the conclusion that if France was to pursue any sort of policy in the Middle East Israel must be supplied neither with military equipment nor spares for existing equipment of French origin.

Not long after the Sinai campaign Foreign Minister Couve de Murville, replying to accusations that by imposing the embargo on offensive weapons, which

in the meantime had been extended to Israel's Arab neighbours, his government had abandoned its position of neutrality, commented that France was not neutral but impartial.

The difference has far-reaching consequences, as France's policies since have shown. In common with other great powers France is trying to impose a political solution from without, to alleviate the conflict by means of a dictated security statute, to delimit the frontiers by international agreement and guarantee them by means of an international force.

France's policies are directed at neither neutrality and non-intervention nor diplomatic mediation between the countries concerned but a international intervention, joint action by the Four Powers in the name of the United Nations and with a Security Council mandate along the lines of the resolution of 22 November 1967.

To this extent France is partial. The role of an impartial, peace-promoting power willing to mediate and with nothing else in mind than the security of all countries in the Middle East presupposes total abstinence. The total ban on arms supplies is not intended as a passive move but as an instrument of dynamic security policy.

Even in France, as in 1967, this policy has been criticised from all sides. General de Gaulle will have reckoned with this criticism and will continue to disregard it because of the aim of his diplomatic campaign, to bring pressure to bear on Israel.

His analysis of the conflict is based on the conviction that it is not Israel that is the weaker party faced with a threat to its very existence but the Palestinian Arabs and the other Arab neighbours of the Jewish state. From the Elysée Palace Israel looms on the political horizon as the Middle Eastern power that must be forced to exercise moderation or else taught a lesson in order to make peace with security for all possible.

With this in mind the French government recently reiterated its demand that

Israel withdraw from the occupied Arab territories, no unambiguous reference being made to Jerusalem, the main bone of contention. General de Gaulle's greatest worry is that the attacks and counter-attacks may escalate to a level where the last hopes of negotiations are dashed and the Arab belligerents are stiffened in their determination not to accept peace.

Were this situation to come about, General de Gaulle feels, the great powers would no longer be in a position to control the crisis from without, insofar as they still are in a position to do so.

The General is accordingly unmoved by allegations that he is encouraging the Arabs to be unyielding and jeopardising the existence of Israel. He does not stop short at playing along with the Soviet Union either, even though the Kremlin is intent on furthering its own power-political interests in the Middle East.

Lothar Ruehl
(DIE WELT, 9 January 1969)

Further ties with Belgrade this month

Jugoslavia and the Federal Republic of Germany expect to reach agreement on the terms of a new cultural and scientific affairs treaty before the end of January. A Yugoslav draft of the proposed agreement is reported already to have been submitted to the Bonn Foreign Office.

The Federal government hopes, when negotiations have reached a successful conclusion, to be able to set up information centres in Zagreb and Belgrade to assist Yugoslav educational facilities in making contact with similar institutions in this country.

Yugoslav state legislation prohibiting the establishment of foreign cultural institutes makes the setting-up of Goethe Institutes impossible. It is gathered, but there has been talk in Belgrade of an exchange of scientists and artists.

(Süddeutsche Zeitung, 8 January 1969)

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POLITICS

FDP challenges political giants
NEW PARTY IMAGE AT EPIPHANY CONFERENCE



Against the background of a hundred-year tradition, the 1969 Epiphany Conference of the Free Democratic Party (FDP) occupies a special, perhaps a distinguished place in the variable history of southwest German liberalism.

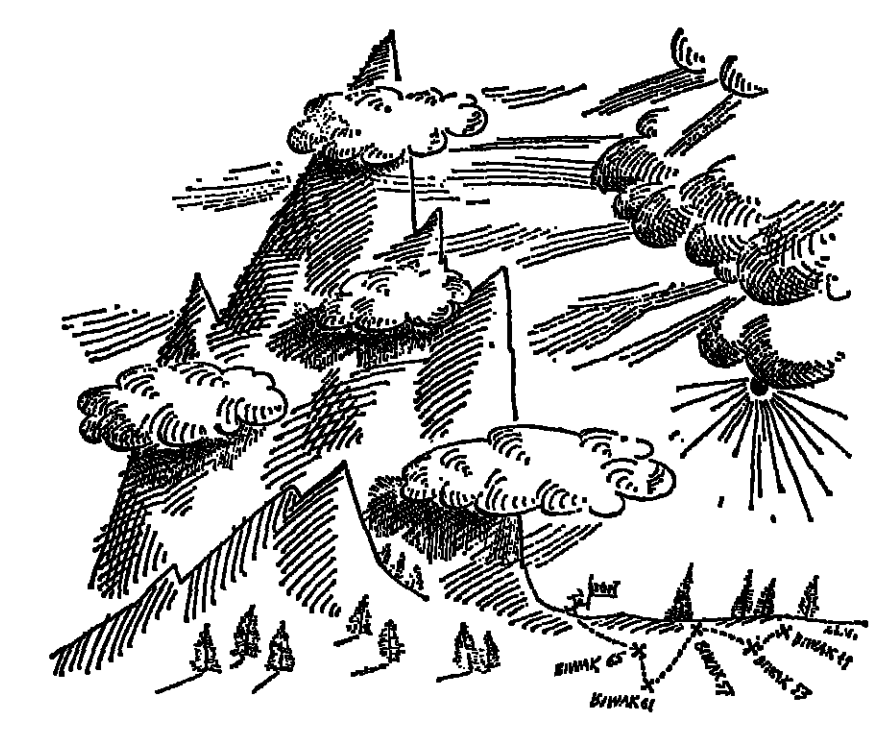
Since the early sixties it has been the aim of senior FDP politicians, who are now carrying the banner of German liberalism, to regenerate the party politically speaking and to create a new party image. Scharnhorst once said tradition does not mean keeping ashes but maintaining the fire, if they wanted to remove the dross and give the fire new life.

In the opinion of progressive reformers, far-reaching structural changes would be required to achieve this objective. It is now thought that these changes have been effected; after a laborious transformation the "new party" has taken shape, it is claimed.

At the Epiphany Conference Walter Scheel, chairman of the FDP in its new garb, indicated the line of attack which the party, committed to "left-wing liberal positions," will pursue. Leaving aside party conference speeches and discussions it is worth posing a question which has both topical and fundamental significance: What are the aims of the "new FDP" which as a result of a self-imposed transformation process has redefined its political standpoint? This process has and will have a definite effect on party membership and the electorate.

In an attempt to describe the new FDP image, one can certainly assert for a start that by adopting a left-wing position Walter Scheel's Free Democrats challenged the traditional standing of the social Democratic Party (SPD) in this country's political history, even though the SPD has at times seemed more like a middle-of-the-road party since the Goebbels conspiracy. It can also be stated that the new FDP's line of attack is clearly directed against the Christian Democratic and Christian Social Unions (CDU/CSU).

This is certainly all accurate and important, but it is not even half the truth of the matter. The purpose of the FDP's



Scaling the stormy heights
(Cartoon: Marie Marks/Süddeutsche Zeitung)

political reorientation and reformation—it was announced at the Epiphany Conference that the later process has been completed—is to present the party as a political opposition party offering alternative policies, just as capable as the other governing parties in the Federal Republic, and to force these parties to undertake a review of their own political standpoint and not to shy away from changes.

People may say that this is like David challenging Goliath or Benjamin challenging his elder brothers. But one thing is certain: the days of Reinhold Maier, who enveloped the FDP as being "small but distinguished," are gone.

Today the FDP wants to bring about a re-grouping of the political parties in the Federal Republic. It wants to transform them into communities of active, committed members who are prepared to make sacrifices. And the FDP is deliberately presenting itself as a democratic alternative to the Grand Coalition.

Having completed its reconstruction process, the FDP wants to appeal to the

mobile social groups in this country. It wants to sharpen party political arguments and to achieve a clear juxtaposition of political convictions so as to force both opponents and voters to reach definite decisions.

First of all the FDP wants to break down the prejudices against the party, which are prevalent amongst certain social groups. Then it wants to initiate a campaign to gain the support of at least some of the approximately twelve million voters who are not committed to a particular party and could, therefore, be won over.

Admittedly, Walter Scheel is pursuing higher aims. He no longer wants to make do with a modest proportion of power, he wants to gain real power. Deliberately and unmistakably, he has announced the FDP's desire to play a leading role.

The FDP's political flights of fancy may be dismissed with a gesture, but this would certainly not be politically shrewd. Of course, it is an open question whether the FDP will be able to stick to the "option of the long march," and many of the left-wing liberals' ideals may seem strange or misguided, and some of their aims will never be realised.

However, the structural transformation of political parties, which has been going on for quite some time, should not be overlooked, nor should the increase in the number of political parties in the Federal Republic be ignored. Right-wing elements have been joining forces and left-wingers have been eagerly making their presence felt, and parallel to this development, within the realm of the traditional political parties, large numbers of voters are now willing to change their allegiance. This, together with the influence of new generations of voters, could possibly lead to a radical change in the spectrum of political parties which has characterised the scene during the past decade.

Experience indicates that there are always voters who will change their political party, and the willingness to switch allegiances is that much greater if links with the social environment are weak. Thus, the electorate's tendency to fluctuate is bound to increase if new parties are established and existing parties project a new image. This situation seems to have arisen at the present time.

If having carried out its re-structuring process, the FDP presents itself as a "new

party" and tries to enlist the support of mobile groups, which must be regarded as floating voters, for its political aims, then the FDP's new position will force the Grand Coalition partners—the CDU/CSU and the SPD—to make their attitudes clear. This is especially true since the liberals' definition of their position is part of the party political structural transformation in the Federal Republic.

This process could be interrupted again and be continued in a different manner. But the reorganisation is underway, and Franz Josef Strauss did not display conservative convictions in vain when the CSU adopted a new political programme in Munich.

Political megalomania

Anyone who regards Scheel's speech against this background, may accuse the Free Democrats of political megalomania, but the party is not likely to be particularly impressed by such reproaches. No one should underestimate the determination of a committed political community, which is prepared to make sacrifices and to embark upon a long march—where possible, irrespective of religious sectarianism.

The FDP knows its aim; it does not know whether it will achieve this aim, but it will pursue it unflinchingly as if political convictions could remove the mountain of difficulties, which the party will have to face. The CDU/CSU and the SPD should, therefore, take this challenge seriously.

Wilhelm Greiner
(RHEIN-NECKAR-ZEITUNG, 7 January 1969)

FDP holds back views on presidential election



In 5 March the Federal Assembly will meet in hall F of the West Berlin exhibition ground near the television tower. The Free Democratic Party (FDP) will only decide the day before the election of the new Federal president which of the two candidates, Gerhard Schröder and Gustav Heinemann it will vote for.

In Stuttgart the FDP presidium decided to call a joint meeting of the FDP delegates to the Federal Assembly and of the FDP Federal executive at three o'clock on the afternoon of 4 March 1969. After a thorough discussion of both candidates, a test vote on the views of FDP Federal Assembly delegates will be taken, under the direction of party chairman Walter Scheel.

The postponement of the FDP decision until the last moment indicates the difficulties which confront the party as regards reaching a unanimous decision. As has been repeatedly stated during recent months, Scheel and other senior FDP members have again said that the FDP will give its 84 votes in the Federal Assembly to the candidate who receives majority support in the test vote.

At the moment, informed observers think it is very likely that the majority of the FDP Bundestag party and presumably of the state delegates will vote for Heinemann. But it is also thought that a number of FDP members will definitely not vote for Heinemann in the Federal Assembly's secret ballot, even if he gains majority support in the test vote. On the other hand, another section of the party would certainly not vote for Schröder even if he won the preliminary vote, though this is at any rate doubtful at present.

(Frankfurter Neue Presse, 8 January 1969)

Henry Cabot Lodge to leave U.S. embassy in Bonn



Since Richard Nixon's election of the US Presidency Bonn has accustomed itself to the idea that Henry Cabot Lodge might have to quit his post as ambassador in Bonn after only a short tenure.

Mr Cabot Lodge, who was Mr Nixon's running mate in his first, unsuccessful attempt on the Presidency, was too highly rated by Mr Nixon not to have been appointed to a key diplomatic post under the new administration.

As a Republican who had held office under a Democratic President Mr Cabot Lodge was not a man to be overlooked. He will be able to provide a Republican administration which is more to his political liking with an element of diplomatic continuity that is essential for a foreign policy that ideally should be above party politics.

The key position Mr Cabot Lodge was bound to occupy was obvious from the posts he had held under President Johnson. As an ambassador in Saigon on two occasions he can now make use of his direct knowledge of the complex state of affairs there as the President's special envoy to the Paris peace talks.

Prior to the official announcement there had been occasional criticism of the expected decision on the ground that Mr Cabot Lodge was too much identified with the Vietnam policies of the Johnson administration. This view is probably the result of party-political prejudice.

A man of Cabot Lodge's calibre, serving under a President who wants to solve the Vietnam question while at the same time safeguarding America's great power interests in South-East Asia, will no doubt be able to outline America's leeway in greater detail and with greater certainty than may be to the liking of many an illusion-bogged optimist on the East coast of the United States.

On the other hand, Mr Cabot Lodge is not the man to succumb to the lobbying of one or other group in South Vietnam.

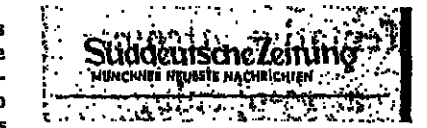
He is too shrewd and profound an observer for that.

These qualities have been in evidence during his spell in Bonn too. As US ambassador he always somehow seemed to tower above the Bonn scene, which of late has been characterised by the departure to Washington of separate representatives of both coalition parties whenever anything of importance is at stake.

It will be interesting to see who is appointed by President Nixon to succeed Mr Cabot Lodge in Bonn. The choice will shed interesting light on the new President's emergent policies towards Europe.

(DER TAGESSPIEGEL, 7 January 1969)

Spain hands Ifni back to the Moroccan government



It must be admitted that Spain, unlike other countries, has parted company from its remaining colonies since the Second World War in an elegant and painless fashion. In 1956 Spanish Morocco was granted independence following a similar move by France. A few months ago Spanish Guinea followed suit and now Ifni, an enclave owned by Spain since 1860, has been handed over to Morocco. In every case the parting has been on the best of terms.

All that remains of what once was an enormous colonial empire on which the sun never set is Spanish Sahara and a few possessions on the north coast of Morocco: Ceuta, Melilla and a few rocks that are hardly contested by Morocco and formally belong to the mother country.

The Sahara, a worthless stretch of desert, Spain would also be glad to relin-

quish but Morocco and Mauritania still dispute the prize.

In handing over Ifni Spain has not only secured fishing rights on the coast. For Spain friendship with the Arab and African world is far more important, particularly support in the United Nations when the old bone of contention Gibraltar is debated.

In the past Britain has responded to Spanish demands for decolonisation of the Rock by pointing out that for one, Madrid has not parted company from its remaining colonies in Africa either and can hardly use colonialism as an argument.

The hand-over of Ifni has deprived Whitehall of a major argument and this is bound to have some effect when Gibraltar next comes up before the General Assembly. Spain can reckon with strong support from African and Asian countries when it reiterates its demand for the return of Gibraltar.

The UN has given Britain until autumn 1969 to leave Gibraltar. Spain will be in a strong position when the forthcoming negotiations start.

(Süddeutsche Zeitung, 7 January 1969)

Ernst Benda works on plans for cabinet shrinkage

At present there are twenty ministers in the Federal Cabinet. The next Cabinet will not have more but less members, in fact only ten or twelve. This is part of the plan which Minister of the Interior Ernst Benda has been working out in recent months, at the request of Chancellor Kiesinger, and which is gradually taking shape.

Early this year Benda is to submit his proposals to the Cabinet so that they can be discussed thoroughly and passed before the elections. He is working on the assumption that a reduction in the size of the Cabinet only be realised through coalition negotiations when forming a new government. Once the government has been appointed, it would hardly be possible to reduce its size because no minister would want to give up his department.

It is said that Benda intends to put two suggestions before the Cabinet. Both are based on the idea that Federal ministers and the Cabinet should be largely relieved of administrative problems so that there



is more time for discussion of political decisions.

According to the first alternative, ten to twelve large ministries should be formed by merging several smaller departments. Instead of the current parliamentary state secretaries, Federal ministers as heads of departments should have ministers of state under their authority to carry out specific tasks.

The second proposal is that all ministries, which are primarily responsible for administration, should be transformed into senior Federal authorities and placed under the remaining ministries. This would be possible, for example, with the departments responsible for posts, health and the whole complex of youth and family affairs.

(Hamburger Abendblatt, 7 January 1969)

THEATRE

Friedrich Dürrenmatt treats a Shakespeare theme

Friedrich Dürrenmatt's treatment of John Lackland (1199-1216), a theme immortalized by Shakespeare, was well worthwhile. It was also rewarding to see the Stroux Ensemble directed by Jaroslav Dvůřák once again. The actors are capable of considerable achievements and all too often they have to perform undemanding works.

Historians tend to get very worked up about King John. They say he was England's worst monarch, a tyrant, coward, idiot, hypocrite, libertine and a thief. But Churchill, a politician, thought that the British nation benefited much more from John's vices than from the efforts of many a virtuous ruler.

By dealing with the struggle between the usurper John, the English aristocracy, the Catholic Church and the French opposition party, Shakespeare illustrated the total mechanism of the lust for power. The theme of this live-act drama, which unfortunately has a very modern ring, is the contradiction between talk of unity, legality and liberty and the actual cynical deeds which are portrayed.

In Dürrenmatt's play King John and his only loyal follower, the bastard Philipp Faulconbridge who is the illegitimate son of Richard II, are somewhat whitewashed. The bastard plays the role of a rational adviser and King John is capable of following the dictates of reason, even if only in his own interests. This deserves respect, says Dürrenmatt, because "many politicians are not even capable of this; at other people's expense, they rush headlong into their own destruction."

At the end of his play Shakespeare holds out hopes of a better future, after King John's death the bastard, on behalf of the heir to the throne, declares that England is unshakable. But with Dürrenmatt the bastard returns to his home country depressed and disgusted: "My country, you are ruined. By submerging myself amidst your people, I will again become part of this people even if only as my brother's stable-boy." Then minister Pembroke, who poisoned the king, announces the victory of reactionary forces: "In our time this country will be directed along the old track, undisturbed by fools."

Dürrenmatt has given social significance to national history. The English Plantagenets and the French Capetians together with the aristocracy are both in the wrong. The Church, represented by a cardinal who excommunicates people for

opportunistic reasons, is part of this feudal system.

King John becomes a reforming politician who turns his attention to the people and promises better conditions though, admittedly, only under severe pressure. So, he is no longer sacrificed because of dynastic interests, but the feudal system rejects a renegade.

The nobility tear each other to pieces in passionate conflicts, curse, struggle and squabble while the cardinal keeps a clear head and hatches his plots. This is a splendid part for Valter Taub who enjoys to the full the grotesque absurdity of the situations with the intellectuality of a fine comedian.

Helmut Trinxer arouses sympathy for the bastard who despairs of reason. Günther Malzacher provides a credible interpretation of King John's hybrid character; laboriously and in vain John checks his innate temperament and natural baseness. King John's opponents live out their passions without any qualms of conscience; Hans Wypřachtiger as the King of France regards government as a dangerous party game.

They are all accomplices and if they murder each other occasionally, then this is all part of their natural mode of existence. It does not mean that the murderer necessarily had some serious objection to his victim.

Twenty years elapsed between the First Quarto edition of *Hamlet* and the Folio edition. Taking into account the fact that the Folio edition, which appeared seven years after Shakespeare's death, was based on the Second Quarto, then the time lapse between the first and the second versions of *Hamlet* is reduced to a single year. The second version is the one which has long been familiar.

Anyone who welcomes the more original figure of the 1603 version with excited shudders, imagining that he is nearer the source, is in fact adhering to this kind of argument: my grandfather knew more about Pericles' Umes because he lived nearer the classical era.

Ludwig Berger emphatically claims that the 1603 version is the original *Hamlet*. It differs from later versions in that Hamlet is younger and expresses himself



A scene from Dürrenmatt's 'King John'

(Photo: Rotenmillier)

When the Plantagenets and the Capetians hold a war council, it is a family gathering because they are all inter-related, and young Arthur Plantagenet, who is used by both sides as a hostage, has a job to distinguish between his "good" and "wicked" uncles.

This humorous element makes Dürrenmatt as an interpreter of Shakespeare superior to the Stuttgart Shakespeare adapters Palitzsch and Wehmeier. The intention is the same but the Stuttgart interpretation of the Wars of the Roses is paralysed by sheer revolt, and the Basle version of *King John* arouses laughter.

(Händelblatt, 24 December 1968)

Hamlet variants and the Quartos

more precisely. The grave digger's lines recalling the time before Hamlet was born, thirty years ago, are missing. Hamlet's mother is no longer an accessory to the murder of Hamlet's father—or at least she says she is not. And the monologue "To be or not to be" is shorter and occurs at a different point.

Anyone who knows anything about theatrical practice, will not find these variations particularly sensational. As the 1603 Quarto version was probably based on a jointly written performance script, one could say that this performance was probably much like numerous later performances: that is, at times a red pencil was used and at others lines were inserted.

Finally, the Folio edition has one inestimable advantage: It was not translated by Ludwig Berger.

As far as the production by Leopold Lindtberg at the Hamburg Thalia-Theater is concerned, it makes one thing painfully clear: the most interesting textual variations are no help whatsoever if the text is steam-rollered by a production whose hallmark is the accented "a" of this country's theatrical provincialism.

So instead of a convincing psychological interpretation, the audience is faced with declamatory gestures and blaring voices; instead of a text which tries to illuminate the didacticism between internal and external action, the indulgent audience is confronted with the old hazardous approach which it has come to accept as the proper way to interpret the classics.

Mad Ophelia strikes a pose typical of Gretchen; madness on stage is like a mixture of self-pity and poetic dilettantism. The wicked king smiles and is still a villain. And, having entered on cue, courtiers stand around sulkily on stage.

Since 1603 was a long time before 1604, Lindtberg decided to stage a production of stunning originality. That is to say, if a cock has to crow, then an actor comes on stage and crows like a cock; if the wind is howling, then a few extras stand around the edge of the stage and blow for all they are worth. This improvised antiquarianism was grotesque when the grave-diggers were shovelling earth into the grave while the grave was mechanically lowered and a buzzing noise could be heard.

One advantage of the 1603 version should not be forgotten: Laertes is called Leartes, Polonius is called Cornubius, and Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are Rosenkraft and Goldenstein. A credit to the bad hearing of the 1603 scribe: he has ensured variety. And just think of it, Hamlet might still have been called Hemlat!

(DIE ZEIT, 20 December 1968)

Baldwin's play in Mannheim

viously, satiates his wounded vanity according to traditional concepts of ownership and slavery by secretly executing a proud, protesting young Negro.

Feiger does not have to expiate his crime because of the colour of his skin, and the power of his co-privileged, prejudiced judges and jurors. In a small town in the American south the persistent notion of the white man's superiority invalidates all civil rights. Baldwin provides a theatrical encounter with contemporary barbarism; there are no optimistic promises of humanity.

Baldwin used an actual case as the basis for his play, but the motives and events are transformed to provide a typical example. Sexual envy and prestige consciousness imbue the action with a sense of reality; hollow, perverted Christianity is also pilloried.

It is a play which proclaims disillusion. It also portrays the last apparently fair white man, the editor-in-chief of the local newspaper, as an ambiguous, resigned turncoat.

The divided stage reflects a divided world: on the left representing the negro area of town is a church and some negro houses, full of song, fear and vain hope; on the right is a petty bourgeois milieu representing the white part of town. Upstage and in the middle scenes connect the two areas.

The court session becomes a tribunal with far-reaching implications. The modern stage is used here as a moral institution, and on this occasion it is so convincing in principle and in effect for much of the time that more detailed criticisms—concerning diction, illogical and disordered scene sequences, the performances given by many of the actors—would only falsify this impression of a generally useful (though aesthetically immature) evening's theatre.

(DEUTSCHES ALLGEMEINES SONNTAGSBLATT, 22 December 1968)

THINGS READ

Is literature dead and a New Literature being reborn?

NOT REVOLUTION BUT A GROTESQUE SOLUTION

DIE WELT
WIRTSCHAFTS- UND KULTURZEITUNG FÜR DEUTSCHLAND

Literature is dead, and everywhere the literati are repelling the texts of the obituaries which May revolutionaries in Paris wrote on the walls. One is inclined to suspect that these are the heralds of the New Literature.

Aggressive reactions therefore, clever comments, irony, sadness—not quite, no one seems to be really sad about the demise of literature. Perhaps these prophets know that literature has been declared dead at intervals for the last hundred years, and no one believed it was. Perhaps this time they really do think literature is dead, but they are indifferent to the death of something of that name.

Why not? What is gained by sentences which someone writes and prints and which have a more or less distant similarity to what we call reality, which we cannot really define? A sentence is a sentence is a sentence. A text is a text is a text.

This is certainly not to assume, however, that literature is not literature. Let it be said at this juncture that criticism only becomes criticism when it has that certain relationship with sentences and texts about which it is so difficult to agree.

Nothing Important

I fear that nothing much will come of what is being said at present about literature and its death. I suspect that the value and validity of all the arguments now filling the columns of newspapers and magazines, and probably soon of books, must be judged according to criteria other than those of matter-of-factness and accuracy. I suspect, furthermore, that we are being primed with complex and hysteria.

The West Berlin Socialist Students' League (SDS) group, Culture and Revolution, and Walter Boehlich, a former leader in the Subkomplex Verlag are apparently nearest to the truth. The SDS group condemned art in *Die Zeit* as a product of the "bourgeois industry." Boehlich announced in a *Kursbuch*, appended to Hans Magnus Enzensberger's latest issue of his left-wing journal, *Kursbuch*, the end of literary criticism.

According to the SDS, artistic creation is being dominated by social determinist forces. Since by his nature the individual is a social animal, the expression of individual moods and inspiration is also the expression of social conditions. The individual work of art finds itself in a social context of distribution.

The work is received in a determinate social atmosphere. Objectively, nothing is altered in the work, and therefore nothing is said against it. The fact is, however, that if the function of art is defined in terms of the reception it receives a total alteration has taken place.

Bourgeois aestheticism, it is maintained, partly removes this division. The aesthetic judgement of art and the ideology of the distributive machine merge to become a community of interests of artistic and economic dimensions. Notwithstanding its substance, Pure Art is caught in the teeth of the processing industry and becomes a medium of intimidation.

Mass culture by remaining at the lowest level gives consumers the feeling that this culture is conditioned according to their needs. The governing classes by

humiliating their duties with art do two things: they demonstrate power by declaring beauty to be their property, and they conceal the harsh realities by allowing them to become overgrown with beauty.

One could tattle on and on. Maybe some of what has been said is true, maybe not, but when we get around to harsh realities it becomes embarrassing. What are we talking about? Who are the rulers, their henchmen and the victims of the described evil?

Those who cannot say more about reality other than that it is harsh know no more about reality than the blindest consumer of light literature.

These SDS members are bandying clichés. Their vocabulary is meagre. They dream of the joy of a people that is dancing jolly dances under the lime trees. For, when have people ever ceased complaining that although the mass are admitted to the ritual of art presentation they are isolated from the "implications" of art?

What is dubious in this society will remain unanswered because the whens, whots, whos and whys remain unanswered. To add to the confusion the new revolutionaries throw old experience to the winds that art, wherever and whenever it was manoeuvred into close contact with the life of the population, became abject and patronising.

The culture group of the West Berlin SDS is not alone in sounding its alarms. "Art is dead, do not eat its cadaver," read an inscription on a Paris wall last May. The death certificate which Walter Boehlich signed begins thus: "Criticism is dead. Which? That of the bourgeoisie, the prevailing criticism. It died of its own ill, died with the bourgeoisie world to which it belonged, died with bourgeois literature which it accompanied patting it on the shoulder, died with the bourgeois God, who gave it his blessing. But are not new churches still being built for the old God? Is not dead criticism still helping to annihilate what is alive? Is not the dead literature flourishing as never before?"

Boehlich continues, "Bourgeois criticism has no impact beyond the first day. It

causes itself to be forgotten. It produces one-day flies. Every critic produces his own. All contradict each other, all are untrustworthy."

This, let it be said, is all a matter of opinion. Perhaps ineffectual criticism is really only playing with ineffectual literature. What critic has not had these doubts? But if this is the case, what follows?

With much grinding and gnashing of teeth Boehlich advances modest proposals: "Could we not have criticism which does not spring from the timeless character of art forms but in each case from the time-bound character. Can we not cease understanding literature as what it reportedly is and understand it instead as that which it serves and what takes place within it?"

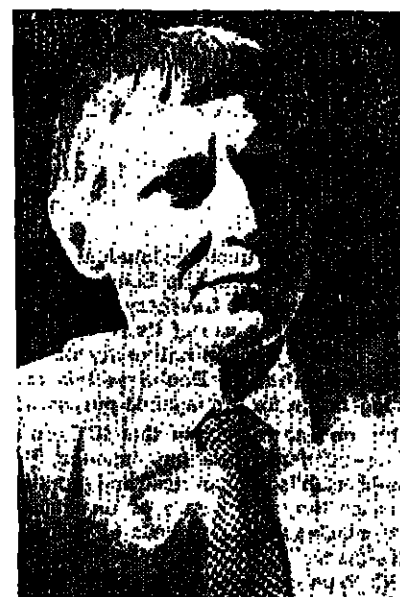
Decisive factor

Boehlich too cannot avoid being asked precisely whom he has in mind. As with the SDS group, he sees in the social function of all literature the decisive factor and in the artistic function the more attendant, irrelevant aspects. Unlike the SDS, he cannot be suspected of wanting the social aspect to come to the fore without deliberating what forms are most suitable. But he is open to the charge of having provided cheap emotionalism instead of intelligent protest.

Is not literary sociology not being preached long since from the rooftops? Cannot the entire dispute be reduced to deciding whether strict determinism prevails between society and literature or whether social conditions allow scope for various modes of literature.

If I believe that such scope should be allowed, why should I then only direct questions at a literary work which promises the best information? In other words, why should I ask social or formal, Marxist or Freudian questions, or, if you like, "bourgeois" questions, although I have no idea what "bourgeois" is today, unless this word means everything?

In the *Kursbuch* which included Boehlich's *Kursbuch* Karl Markus Michel stated, "As far as West Germany is concerned



'Kursbuch' editor Enzensberger

(Photo: Arday)

It is obvious since last Easter that Gruppe 47, denounced as a source of dissatisfaction and corrosion, is not even a paper tiger but a house dog." Michel said that the group was progressive at best in a formal sense. He also discovered the "aestheticism of protest" which he founded on Karl Dietrich Wolff's statement, "Our demonstrations are becoming more and more beautiful."

Are demonstrations beautiful? Can their beauty replace what used to be accepted as beauty of art? If so, then Boehlich is also dancing on a corpse. If so, then we must discover what is beautiful in a rallying song such as the Internationale or in battle cries such as "Schlagt die Germanen tot, macht die blauen Blume rot" or in clenched fists or flying paving-stones. Then we will need a new form of criticism that does justice to the fact that a paving-stone can have the same effect as a policeman's service revolver.

Bourgeois criticism, Michel complains, is dying of its own symbolic concepts. The reflective theory of Marxism is "really a negation of expression." The nihilism in our society restores, however, to the well-adjusted something of the reality they lost during the adjustment by tirelessly joining issue with them. The restoration of reality becomes a criterion, demonstration becomes a new "innovation" which hitherto exhausted itself in ongoing forms with forms.

Art? Art still? The barrier between art and reality still stands. When Hans Werner Henze hung his oratorio, *Finnis der Medusa*, on a Red flag and the chorus quit, having a different view of his flag, the radio station recording the work broadcast the oratorio from tapes that were held in readiness for such an eventuality. Instead of revolution a grotesque solution.

Do we need scandals? Do we need art? If we do need both, how do we bring them together? In his recent *Kursbuch* Hans Magnus Enzensberger suggested that the literati should be retrained. "Teaching people the ABC of politics in this country is a gigantic project. It must, however, begin with teaching the alphabet to those who are themselves teachers."

This is not a bad idea, but it must be thought out. Up to this point an interim solution would not be a bad thing. Art certainly does not have the impact of flying stones, but now and then it does spread a true awareness, which stones cannot guarantee, especially in the case of those who are hit by the stones.

Art and of course criticism should take time off to study reality, and revolutionaries should practice expressing themselves properly. The text of the West Berlin SDS group is not the only indication that poor style cannot be advanced as evidence of good will, and the revolutionary slogans on the walls will not ultimately save the conscience of man.

Just Nolte

(DIE WELT, 17 December 1968)

Max Brod dies in Tel Aviv

GREAT KAFKA AUTHORITY

Hamburger Abendblatt

Max Brod, Prague-born Israeli writer, died in Tel Aviv, aged 84. He emigrated to Palestine in 1939.

Brod, friend and critic of Franz Kafka and a leading Zionist, excelled as a novelist, poet, playwright, philosopher and composer. A banker's son, he was born in 1884 and studied at the German University in Prague.

Having graduated as a lawyer, he worked as a public official, later as an editor on a Prague daily newspaper. When Prague was occupied by German troops in 1939 Brod emigrated to Palestine. He became a director of the Habimah Theatre in Tel Aviv.

Max Brod was a boyhood friend of Franz Werfel and Franz Kafka whose

works he interpreted and helped popularise. Especially Kafka, who died young, received a memorial in Brod's biography and the dramatisation of *The Castle*.

The two main themes of Brod's writings are Jewish history and philosophy, particularly that of the Renaissance. With his novel *Tycho Brahe's Weg zu Gott* (1915) Brod achieved fame beyond the borders of Austria.

In *Heldentum, Christentum, Judentum* (1921) Brod embarked on a study of world religions. He dramatised Hasek's *Schweik* and translated the operas of Janacek into German.

Brod's autobiography, *Streitbares Leben*, appeared in 1960. A new edition, revised and extended by the author, will be published this month. Brod made the final corrections only a few weeks ago. This edition was originally intended to appear on the author's 85th birthday in May 1969.

(Hamburger Abendblatt, 21 December 1968)

EDUCATION

Vice-chancellors oppose Arts, Science and Research Council

The Federal Republic students' union has accused the Arts, Science and Research Council of treachery to the academic world because of its recommendations on reorganising university structure and administration. Doubtless this is an exaggeration for propaganda purposes.

But no one can doubt that if these recommendations were implemented, they would establish "supervised universities." Because they are aware of this danger, the members of the Federal Republic Vice-chancellors' Conference have been quick to publicise their opposing views.

The first section of their recommendations on university reform, which has already been published and deals with central administrative bodies, is obviously influenced by the desire to defend university autonomy and to counteract all attempts to allow the state more influence on university affairs via side or back entrances.

The Vice-chancellors' Conference thinks that the most dangerous intrusion of state bureaucracy and political bodies would be the institution of a university president, who would have far-reaching powers and would be appointed by the state. For their part, they suggest three alternatives: a collegiate chancellor's office, a collegiate presidium or a senior vice-chancellor.

The collegiate chancellor's office, called a directorate, would consist of three members whose appointments would be subsidiary to other posts. The chancellor would belong to this body either as an advisory or a voting member.

The collegiate presidium would be made up of a president—this would be a full-time post—who need not be a university teacher and at least two vice-presidents, who would be on the teaching staff.

The full-time vice-chancellor would be appointed for at least four years and would have only one deputy. The directorate would be elected by the university council, the university administrative body. The full-time vice-chancellor would be elected by the council and confirmed in office by the state government. The president would be nominated by council and appointed by the state government.

One of the Arts, Science and Research Council's recommendations suggests a governing body which would be able to control the university president and



would have far-reaching powers to dispose of the lump sum subsidies to universities. The vice-chancellors, in agreement with students, regard this idea as a back door by means of which hostile elements could penetrate the universities and make nonsense of the principle of autonomy.

The vice-chancellors are not interested in a mixed body of this kind which would enable the state executive, the legislature and certain community groups to participate directly in decisions affecting individual universities. The advisory committee, which they suggest as an alternative to promote contacts with the community, could scarcely become more than a well-meaning club for local dignitaries.

In the opinion of vice-chancellors, the senate should remain the central university executive body. The senate decides on all fundamentally important questions, passes all university regulations, advises on budgetary matters and, if necessary, alters budget allocations with a two-thirds majority, and approves all nominations for appointments.

The suggestion regarding the composition of the senate tries to take into account two principles at the same time. The Arts, Science and Research Council gives up the idea of faculty representation on the senate to ensure the integration of the departmental system throughout the university. But the vice-chancellors consider that faculty representation is essential for the sake of this same integration.

Universities cannot be adapted to twentieth century needs simply by introducing reforms. For instance, the traditional faculty system is irrationally the duties of a vice-chancellor cannot be combined with the desire to be a university teacher at the same time; university organisation, which is based on the professorial chair and whose purest form is the one-man institute, directly contradicts the fact that nowadays research almost invariably requires cooperation between various disciplines; and it is doubtful whether the Abitur (school-leaving examination) should remain the sole qualification for university entrance.

Because of all these factors, expansion of the university system can no longer be achieved merely through reforms; large-scale reorganisation is necessary. This is not only the opinion of rebellious students but also of the Arts, Science and Research Council—the body responsible for university policy, which still possesses most authority in this field in the Federal Republic and which recently submitted its latest recommendations on university reform.

Although the Arts, Science and Research Council has no executive powers, its recommendations are bound to arouse widespread interest. Their early recommendations on the extension of academic institutions not only attracted attention but achieved a measure of success, which has not yet been fully clarified. All the state parliaments began to drastically increase the number of university teachers.

This success—and not simply the constantly increasing number of students—made the classical university organisation, based on personal cooperation between teachers and self-administrative bodies, unworkable. In 1960 the Arts, Science and Research Council relied on the state and

But in order that university staff, junior lecturers and students have the right to representation, the senate would include two delegates elected by teachers, and three or four representatives elected by junior lecturers and the same number of student representatives.

Since the "new faculties" established by merging several existing departments are to be smaller than the present faculties, the senate would automatically be larger than at the moment. A senate consisting of 25 members, as envisaged by the Vice-chancellors' Conference, would only be workable—if at all—if practical tasks were largely dealt with by the permanent specialised commissions, which it is suggested should be set up for all areas of responsibility.

The university council, which would be an administrative body, elected and convened by the executive, presents an even trickier problem. The council would consist of the voting members of the senate and the specialised commissions.

But since the recommendations say nothing about the organisation of these specialised areas and it is, therefore, an open question who would belong to these commissions, it is difficult to estimate how large the university councils would be. They could have five or even eight hundred members, and it is surely doubtful whether such monstrous gatherings could function efficiently.

The commission appointed by the Vice-chancellors' Conference to work out suggestions for the basic organisation of universities, that is for the organisation of departments, the future units for teaching and research, has not yet completed its investigation. It can be assumed that this is not because of lack of industry but

University reform and the times

the universities themselves to find ways of altering the administrative system. But eight years later it has had to put forward its own proposals for structural and administrative changes at universities.

The Arts, Science and Research Council considers that four "irrevocable prerequisites" must be borne in mind:

In future universities must be directed by a full-time president.

As far as staff and budgetary considerations are concerned, universities must be granted independent administrative and decision-making powers.

State and academic administrations must be combined to form one body.

The old faculties must be replaced by specialised departments, which should not be controlled by a single professor.

These points and many details of the Arts, Science and Research Council's recommendations reiterate what has been demanded on all sides for quite some time, and what has been discussed in some quarters when considering new university legislation. Many suggestions are laudable; many repeat what reasonable reformers already regard as the best solution, despite the present, particularly depressing circumstances at universities.

Nonetheless, these recommendations are bound to arouse criticism: because some of the points which are raised, and because of some points which are ignored.

The first category includes proposals regarding university entrance. Admittedly unconditional acceptance on the basis of

because of the difficulty of teaching assessment.

The organisation of departments raises the question of participation and cooperation on the part of junior lecturers and students. Do the vice-chancellors realise that university autonomy should only be defended if cooperation between the various groups who do the work is successfully achieved?

Sensible proposals for long-term, flexible budgets and new bodies which, like the suggested university budget committee, would improve cooperation with government authorities, will not save university autonomy if the universities themselves do not succeed in solving the conflicts between their various constituent groups.

(DEUTSCHES ALLGEMEINES SONNTAGSBLATT, 22 December 1968)

Student body exceeds 250,000 mark

In the summer semester of 1968 the number of German students at the 52 universities in the Federal Republic (including the 17 philosophical-theological and ecclesiastical universities) topped the 257,000 mark, that is 3.1 per cent more than in the summer semester of 1967.

According to figures released by the Federal Statistics Bureau the number of foreign students dropped slightly compared with previous semesters to 21,800. Almost a quarter (24.2 per cent) of the German students at further education colleges are women, and 20.1 per cent of university students are women.

As in 1967, the most popular subjects amongst German students during 1968 were arts subjects. Including those training to be teachers at primary, secondary and further education schools, 27.2 per cent of students opted for arts subjects.

14.7 per cent studied economics, 16.4 per cent scientific subjects, 11.4 per cent engineering, 11.3 per cent medicine and 10.5 per cent law.

(DIE WELT, 19 December 1968)

the Abitur is called in question, but the Arts, Science and Research Council only really doubts the efficacy of this system where there is already a shortage of university places. Council says that new methods of selection should be developed.

There is a real danger that by concentrating on developing special selection procedures, no action will be taken to increase the number of places to meet demand. This danger seems considerable in view of the *numerus clausus* which already has to be operated at many universities.

All considerations connected with reorganising the teaching structure are some of the matters on which the Arts, Science and Research Council remains silent or does not provide sufficient information. It is not enough to suggest that the honorary vice-chancellor should be replaced by a full-time president or that heads of departments should not have absolute power over their particular professorial chair.

The slogan "democratisation of universities" means more than the introduction of triple parity—namely the abolition of the hierarchical structure, abolition of the increasing personal privileges granted to senior members of the university, participation by all members of the institution in decision-making, and the establishment of control mechanisms within the university.

Thus in the coming weeks the Arts, Science and Research Council will be subject to much justified criticism. It is a known fact that the council takes criticism calmly. But it would be a good thing if Council did not insist on ambiguous or inadequately thought out suggestions simply because it has sufficient prestige to get away with it.

(DIE ZEIT, 20 December 1968)

SCIENCE

Doctors and unorthodox treatment

CONTRIBUTION TO THERAPY

When prescribing treatment only one in four of doctors practising in large towns restrict themselves to orthodox and scientifically proven methods. At least occasionally, three quarters of the doctors attached to health insurance schemes also employ "unrecognised medical methods."

This fact was revealed by a survey initiated by the Stuttgart medical association and conducted in the city. Professor Hans Ritter, consultant at the polytechnic of the Robert Bosch Hospital in Stuttgart, was responsible for this interesting survey. Detailed information provided by 570 doctors was evaluated, and significantly 81 of these doctors wished to remain anonymous.

The survey showed that of the various unorthodox methods, practising doctors were particularly keen on homeopathy in its various forms. More than a third of the doctors questioned said they occasionally used homeopathic methods. Professor Ritter thinks that this is not surprising in a state where this form of treatment has long been firmly accepted. It would be interesting, therefore, if a similar survey were carried out in another Federal state, preferably in a rural area, comments the Stuttgart doctor.

Phytotherapy, the use of herbal cures, is almost as popular. However, in this instance it is often difficult to differentiate between this type of treatment and orthodox medicine. For example, digitalis (foxglove leaves used as a drug), which is traditionally used by orthodox doctors, is a herbal substance.

After homeopathy, neural and segmental therapy are most frequently employed. These methods of treatment only differ very slightly from orthodox medicine. They are dependent on the important realisation (and a fact which is also recognised by classical medicine) that close mutual reactions take place between the nerve-fibres of the individual segments of the spinal chord and the corresponding organs and areas of skin; these



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reactions can be influenced through injections or other treatment of the "zones" affected by illness.

Acupuncture, a method taken over from ancient Chinese medicine, is a special form of segmental therapy. However, only relatively few doctors use this method, whereas it seems that chiropractic which unfortunately was not mentioned in the questionnaire is fairly widespread.

Many doctors only use these unorthodox measures occasionally or as additional therapy. The number of doctors who mainly or even exclusively prescribe unorthodox treatment is relatively small. But Professor Ritter says it would be illusory to think that scientific medicine is gradually replacing the cures which are not strictly scientific.

At best, this only applies to a very small group of illnesses when it would be a professional error, so to speak, not to employ the methods recommended by orthodox medicine. But only about four per cent of the complaints with which the practising doctor has to deal belong to this category.

The recognised treatment for 18 per cent of common illnesses is only "relatively prescriptive," that is, in its present form treatment is not absolutely binding although it is usually employed. And Professor Ritter goes on to say that another 21 per cent of cases concern "minor routine manipulations which do not affect the problem under review."

Thus, there is no generally binding and accepted therapy for 57 per cent of the complaints with which the practising doctor comes into contact. But in his report recently published in the *Deutscher Ärzteblatt* Professor Ritter stresses that it is just these illnesses which concern the practising doctor or specialist.

As orthodox medicine is often unable to suggest clear guidelines for treatment of these cases, it is hardly surprising that a doctor may resort to unrecognised

New methods for Bible translation

At the instigation of the board of governors, the Volkswagen Foundation has provided 500,000 Marks for work on a large edition of the New Testament. The chairman of the foundation, Bishop D. Hermann Kest (Bonn), had submitted a motion calling for the promotion of textual research into the New Testament.

The last edition of the Greek New Testament, which can be said to have taken into consideration and reliably transferred all existing manuscript texts, appeared a hundred years ago. Since then numerous additional manuscript texts have been discovered; in the past decade alone some thousand manuscripts have been unearthed by the Münster Institute for New Testament textual research, directed by Professor D. Kurt Aland.

These discoveries have put the text of the New Testament in a completely new light. Above all the recent, often sensational, discoveries of papyrus manuscript texts set forward the date when the New Testament was written by two centuries. Thus, academicians face possibilities of which the nineteenth century would never have dreamed.

The whole situation has changed since the Münster textual research institute, which was founded in 1959, succeeded in acquiring photographs or microfilms of nearly per cent of all New Testament manuscripts.

Textual research

The leading European institutes engaged in textual research into the New Testament as well as the Münster institute, these include the Vetus Latina Institute attached to Beuron Abbey, the Papal Biblical Institute in Rome, the Ecole Biblique in Jerusalem, the Patristic Centre at Strasbourg University and the Oriental Institute at Löwen University—these institutes and various other bodies are co-operating as a scholastic community in order to seriously tackle this great task on an international and inter-confessional basis, using the most modern methods available.

The data-processing centre at Tübingen University has worked out a system

which means that a computer will be able to assist in this work. The study will take many years, but for the initial period at least financial requirements will be met by the Volkswagen Foundation.

When this great task has been completed, it will not only provide the basis for all academic study of the New Testament but also for all translations of the New Testament into modern languages.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 18 December 1968)

Johannes Georgi — explorer of Greenland

The number of field researchers who have been able to make a valid contribution to exploring the world is dwindling fast. Johannes Georgi is one of the few. With modest external means, he has been able to make lasting contributions to research.

In 1926/27 he discovered the strong gales in the north-west corner of Ireland, which are now called jet streams. Despite huge natural resistance, he successfully instigated the International Polar Year in 1957/58 in which 49 nations participated. He designed several epoch-making instruments and he became internationally known as the director of the polar station during Alfred Wegener's Greenland expedition in 1930/31.

Georgi, who was born on 14 December 1898, was one of the first students to attend lectures by the young Alfred Wegener in Marburg. At that time Wegener had already established his reputation as the most successful Greenland researcher in Germany.

As it dictated by fate, the paths of these two men crossed again when Wegener became Georgi's superior at the Hamburg marine observatory in 1919. But it was Georgi who, after an important expedition to Iceland, once again turned Wegener's attention to the largest

island in the world. Georgi revealed his plans for travelling to Greenland.

Jointly, the two of them organised the 1930/31 Greenland expedition, the most ambitious project ever undertaken on the island by German researchers. Georgi certainly had the most difficult task to fulfil; he was in charge of the polar station on the ice cap at a height of 3,000 metres above sea level.

Here, under the trickiest conditions, Georgi carried out balloon experiments which revolutionised the knowledge of Greenland's meteorology. Sorge dug a 16-metre shaft and acquired measurements which were considered sensational at the time and were confirmed in 1948/51.

The research projects had been complicated when the polar station was evacuated by the success of the mission was marred by Wegener's death. Nothing was done during the Third Reich to record the geodetic signals in the polar regions.

But during the major French expedition between 1948 and 1951, Paul-Emile Victor was persuaded by Georgi not to establish another polar station but to link up with the old German station. Thus it was possible to compare measurements recorded twenty years apart.

In the summer of 1955 a small group of American researchers were able to

methods more frequently than he cares to admit. What should a doctor do in view of this situation? Should he refuse to try cures which are not recognised by orthodox medicine, as a matter of principle?

Professor Ritter has his doubts. He thinks that this kind of attitude could persuade more patients, who have not responded to orthodox treatment at first, to turn to quacks who might overlook a really serious danger or disease.

He suggests that "critical consideration of methods of treatment outside the strictly scientific field could contribute to a reassessment of general practice." In any event, however, a similar statistical investigation should first be carried out on a broader basis.

(DIE WELT, 22 December 1968)

Geographers from Hanover to visit Africa

Professor Horst Mensching, director of the geographical institute at Hanover's Technical University, and three of his colleagues will be conducting scientific research in Africa between 4 January and 10 April 1969. The expedition will cost about 75,000 Marks and is largely being financed by the Federal Research Association.

During this period the group will travel in two landrovers from Abidjan (Ivory Coast) via Bobo-Dioulasso (Upper Volta), Niamey (Niger), Kano (Nigeria), Agadez (Niger), Tamanrasset and El Golea (Algeria) to Algiers.

The distance covered will be some 8,400 miles of which about 1,250 miles will take the researchers along desert tracks. The main purpose of the expedition is to carry out basic research into the water supply on the southern edge of the Sahara and to investigate the climatic development of the desert, morphological processes, the development of land-leaves and the exploitation of Third World countries bordering on the Sahara. Two regions for special study will be the transitional area between Savanna and desert in Upper Volta and the Air and Hoggar mountains.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 20 December 1968)



Johannes Georgi (Photo: Lew)

confirm Victor's findings, and in the same year a commission responsible for planning a third International Geophysical Year took up Georgi's suggestion that the historic polar station should be maintained as a permanent, international base.

Johannes Georgi's book *In Eis vergraben* will remain one of the most interesting reports on a polar expedition.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 20 December 1968)

Ulm design college closes

On 31 December teaching and studying at the Ulm College of Design ceased. This was decided at a recent meeting of the executive of the Scholl Foundation. The executive thus bowed to the decision reached by the Baden-Württemberg government which had blocked the transitional budget originally allocated to the College of Design.

Students who were due to take their final examinations shortly are to be allowed to complete their courses. Other students are to be guaranteed places at the re-founded college. A commission of experts will decide on the site and accommodation of the new college. By the autumn of 1969 the commission is to report to the government on refunding the college as a state institution. The Scholl Foundation, which has supported the college up to now, will only be disbanded after the state has taken over responsibility for the college.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 20 December 1968)

Johannes Georgi

TRANSPORT

Too many vehicles for too few miles of highways

Twenty-five million motor vehicles rolled off the assembly lines in Europe, America and Japan last year. In 1967 there were already 150 million cars on the world's roads and the annual rate of increase is about ten per cent.

Eleven million private cars, one million commercial vehicles and 1.2 million tractors motored around the Federal Republic of Germany in 1967, joined in the summer months by the armada of foreign tourists heading south.

Their only contribution to road-building and maintenance of the autobahns on which they sped towards warmer climes was to fill up with petrol a couple of times. Tax on a litre of petrol amounts to roughly 42 pfennigs, at least 48 per cent of which goes towards road-building.

This flux of automobiles will assume even worse proportions, according to a forecast made by Deutsche Shell. By 1975, it was estimated, there will be twenty million cars on the roads of this country. 1975 is only seven years hence. They will be far fewer as far as the growth of the motor trade is concerned and lean years in respect of the motorists' freedom of movement.

The Federal Republic's road network has reached the respectable level of more than 250,000 miles. This is equal to ten times round the globe or the distance from the Earth to the Moon. This total consists of:

- 2,250 miles of autobahn
- 20,000 miles of Federal highways
- 41,500 miles of state roads
- 36,500 miles of roads for which the administrative districts (Kreise) are responsible
- 85,000 miles of local authority roads in built-up areas
- 71,000 miles of local authority roads outside built-up areas.

Yet these figures do not by any means prove that this country's road network is anywhere near completion. In neighbouring France, for instance, there are 450,000 miles of road, used by only ten million private cars and a total of only twelve million motor vehicles of all kinds.

French motorists have nearly twice as many miles of road at their disposal and since they also drive only 6,000 miles a year on average (as against 10,000 here) the volume of traffic on a mile of road is approximately four times greater in this country than in France.

Even so, people in this country can breakfast leisurely, have a working lunch with a business contact 300 miles away and dine with a friend 500 miles away. They do not need to use public transport for this. French motorists cannot equal this feat, for they do not have the benefit of this country's 2,250 miles of carefree motorway, to which a further 500 are to be added in the course of the present four-year road-building programme, due to end in 1971, not to mention the 1,940 miles of autobahn that are still at the planning stage.

When these plans have left the drawing board and taken shape on the ground this country will have at its disposal a network of more than 4700 miles of autobahns, the super-highways that used to be called the roads the Führer built (despite the fact that they were planned and commenced during the Weimar Republic).

Autobahns, which can only be compared with America's inter-state highways and Italy's autostrade, prove convincingly that the efficacy of a country's road network depends less on quantity than on quality.

With the exception of the United States no country has anywhere near as many miles of autobahn as the Federal Republic of Germany. Italy has 1,700, France 625,

Britain 440, the Netherlands 410, Austria 220, Belgium 190 and Sweden 136 miles of motorway.

In Europe as a whole there are already 5,800 miles of autobahn, but by 1980 there are to be 12,500, nearly two fifths of which will be in this country.

On 16 September 1950 transport specialists from all over Europe agreed to work on a network of European roads. The Federal Republic became a party to this agreement, which has since been increased in scope, on 14 November 1957.

There are roughly 30,000 miles of European roads, marked by green road signs with the letter "E" in white and a number from 1 to 26. Approximately a third of the total pass through three Common Market countries, Italy, France and the Federal Republic.

Within the framework of the present four-year road-building programme this country's autobahn boffins hope by 1970 to bridge major gaps in the autobahn network, caused mainly by the division of Germany and principally affecting north-south traffic from Hamburg, Bremen and Hanover to Munich and Basel.

Transport experts of the Weimar and Hitler periods based their planning on Berlin, the Reich capital. An autobahn ring round Berlin was planned and autobahns from all over the Reich were to fluk up with it.

This idea is no longer feasible. At Holmstedt, Huf and near Hamburg access to the Berlin Ring is blocked. To drive from Hamburg to Munich only a few years ago motorists had first to make their way to the other side of Hanover, by trunk road. Near Göttingen they reached the Kassel-Frankfurt autobahn.

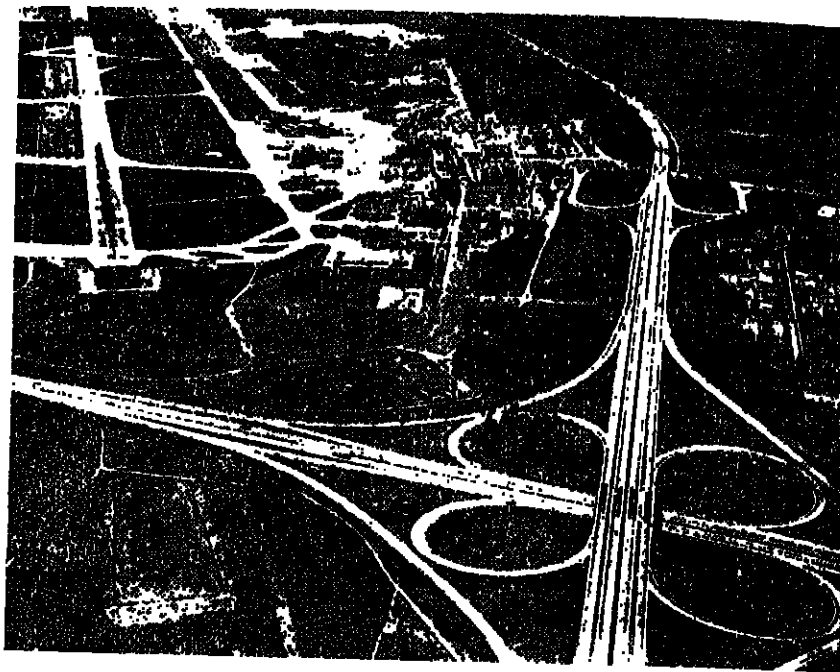
They then had to make the detour via Karlsruhe and Stuttgart to reach Munich by autobahn. The time wasted was ridiculous but, of course, it would have taken even longer on trunk roads.

Southward-bound motoring was first made easier by the building of the Hamburg-Hannover-Kassel autobahn. The Frankfurt-Würzburg-Nuremberg autobahn cut the distance between Hamburg and



Such heavy traffic is a frequent occurrence on autobahns in this country.

(Photo: Coatl-Press)



Frankfurt Kreuz, close to Frankfurt's International Airport, is one of the busiest autobahn clover leaves in Europe, linking north-south highways with highways through the industrial Ruhr.

(Photo: dpa-Fotopresse, Min. f. Wirt. u. Verk. Nr. 322/69)

Munich by sixty miles or so and the section between Bad Homburg and Würzburg, completed this summer, cut the distance by another sixty miles.

As fast driving is now possible over almost the entire distance between the two cities the driver of a family saloon can drive from Hamburg to Munich in seven hours with no difficulty at all. Faster cars can make it in five and a half hours.

Other sections of the Federal Republic's autobahn network are also under construction or due to be commenced by 1970. They include the autobahns from Frankfurt to Heidelberg, Stuttgart to Lake Constance, Nuremberg to Heilbronn, Munich to Lake Constance, Bremen to Cuxhaven, Hamburg to Flensburg, Koblenz to Luxembourg, Neumünster to Kiel and part of the Hamburg-Berlin autobahn, which was planned before the war.

In all the road-building programme for the period 1967 to 1970 provides for the construction of 625 miles of new autobahn, 1,540 miles of two-lane Federal highway, 880 four-lane Federal highway and 1,120 miles of road extensions. The entire programme is financed by the Federal government and will cost in the region of eighteen million Marks.

The network of Federal highways is no longer the main problem transport planners in this country face. Contributions and built-up areas surrounding major cities are the real difficulty. As long ago as 1964 a commission of specialists estimated that by 1975 roughly 100,000 million Marks will be needed to keep local authority roads in trim, a figure that will rise to 250,000 million Marks by the year 2000.

The entire taxation system would need to be revised to raise sums of this kind and more recent estimates make even worse reading. Unless road traffic is to grind to a halt, it has since been forecast, the Federal government, Federal states and local authorities will need to invest roughly 175,000 million Marks in road-building by 1975, and approximately 380,000 million Marks by 1990.

In comparison with figures of this kind the amount of money already spent, although not inconsiderable, seems modest indeed. Since 1950 the Federal government, Federal states and local authorities have invested more than 100,000 million Marks in road-building, roughly a quarter of which has been provided by the Federal government.

Road-building expenditure accounts for 2.2 per cent of the national income, which is none too bad. France spends only 1.5 per cent on road-building and maintenance; Britain only one per cent; Switzerland and Norway head the list at the moment with three per cent. Sweden too does well to invest 2.5 per cent of national income roads.

(DEUTSCHES ALLGEMEINES SONNTAGSBLATT, 5 January 1959)

TECHNOLOGY

Technical research achievements poured down the drain

BONN HAS THE LAST WORD

STUTTGARTER ZEITUNG

This country has still not mastered the art of turning commercial success in next to no time from the new branches of technology developed at great expense with the aid of the taxpayers' money. Still less has Bonn learnt its lesson. Research projects financed from defence estimates are suddenly stripped of funds just as the first results start to appear, simply because the purely military interest has flagged or a new concept of defence policy has completely upset technical planning.

Thousands of millions of Marks have been poured down the drain in this way, often enough concealed from the general public on the pretext of secrecy being essential for reasons of military security. No one in Bonn complains.

Real complications do not arise until a firm engaged in research work on the project in question starts to propose making civilian use of the results or completing the work with commercial exploitation in mind. In this instance either nothing happens or months and years pass before decisions are made as to which government department is responsible, whether the project can be taken off the classified list and how the remainder of the work is to be financed.

Local authorities beg money from their states. Some states come up in hand to the Federal government, but all these reasons changes must be effected in the financial system. In other words what is needed is the major financial reform that has been in the pipeline for so many years.

Meanwhile the avalanche of cars rolls on. Saturation point is reckoned to be about 300 cars per 1,000 head of the population. At the moment there are 190. By 1975 there will be 280. Somewhere between 1980 and 1985 saturation point will inevitably be reached.

Motorists in this country have a lean time ahead and the next ten years should be the worst. Not for another decade is there any real prospect of road-building catching up with the increase in car ownership.

At present there is one private car for every five people in this country, the same proportion as in France, in Belgium, Britain, Denmark and Switzerland the proportion is one in six; in Norway one in seven; in Italy, Holland and Austria one in eight; in Spain one in thirty; in the Soviet Union one in 246 and in India one in 1,200.

In Sweden, on the other hand, there is one private car for every four people and in the United States one for less than three.

Nearly eighty million of the 150 million private cars in the world are to be found in the United States, but nearly a third (47 million) are in cramped and densely populated Europe, thirty million of them in the six Common Market countries. Only one car in every 1.50 is to be found in the Soviet Union.

Yet there are 3.7 million miles of road for America's eighty million private cars, while the million or so motor vehicles in the Soviet Union, most of which are lorries, have 800,000 miles of road to play with. The Common Market's thirty million cars, on the other hand, have to make do with just over one million miles of road, while the fifteen million cars in EFTA countries have only 430,000 miles of road at their disposal.

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tion in which the Federal Republic has, in the course of a few years, overtaken all conceivable competitors in East and West: the technology of vertical take-off aircraft.

To the order of the Ministry of Defence this country's aircraft industry designed, built and test-flew the world's first super-sonic vertical take-off jet, the VJ 101, which is still undergoing tests at Manching, near Ingolstadt. The project has cost more than 1,000 million Marks.

The Defence Ministry also commissioned Dr. Dornier of Oberpfaffenhofen, Munich, the world's first vertical take-off jet transport plane in the twenty-ton class. Here too the design, construction and test flying work have cost more than 250,000 Marks.

At VFW in Bremen, the company formed when Focke-Wulf, Heinkel and Weser

Defence Ministry ceases to show interest

Phugzeugbau merged, work on the prototype of the VAK 191, a vertical take-off plane with a high subsonic cruising speed, is nearing completion. The Ministry of Defence has invested nearly 500,000 Marks in this project too.

Finally, the Defence Ministry has spent an unspecified but considerable amount on design work for a swivel-wing turbo-prop vertical take-off transport plane, the VC 400.

At a conservative estimate this country has so far invested roughly 2,500 million Marks in the development of vertical take-off aircraft, and the special propulsion units and avionics required. The aircraft industry has proved that with this amount of money at its disposal it is capable of doing work that has both gained it international recognition and made it the envy of its competitors.

Yet the development of vertical take-off aircraft has lain fallow for the last year and a half. The Ministry of Defence has lost interest, the flow of cash has declined to a mere trickle or stopped altogether and the late awaiting the state of technological know-how that has been gained by dint of such hard work and at such expense is most uncertain. Foreign competitors, particularly in the United States, are catching up at a fast rate.

It is already clear that the VAK 191 will not progress beyond the prototype stage and the VC 400 will probably never leave the ground. Officials concerned boldly and with a clear conscience assure all and sundry that vertical take-off experience gained from work on the VJ 101 will unquestionably be of use in work on the new jet fighter, the NKF, that is to supersede the F 104 G Starfighter in about ten years or so.

What is not mentioned is that the NKF's predecessor on the drawing-board, the AVS, which was to have been designed and built by a consortium of Federal Republic and American firms, was cancelled by the US government for economy reasons at the very moment a hundred or so American engineers left for home with details of work on the super-sonic vertical take-off VJ 101. This information was probably not all they took with them.

Almost as soon as they arrived back in the United States money was again forthcoming, with the result that America is shortly to unveil a vertical take-off aircraft that is likely to bear striking similarities with the defunct AVS.

Were the NKF also to run into deep water—and it has already had more than its share of political hickering—this country might well end up, as Lüttwalle sepias already fear, buying its new jet fighter in the United States. Bonn would then have paid for the same aircraft three times over.

For at least two years Dornier have had definite ideas as to how to adapt the

Crude oil is to be pumped into the 2,35-million-cubic-yards of galleries at the end of this year. The underground storage facilities will have cost about 45 million Marks. Oil bunkers of equal capacity would have cost more than three times as much to build.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung für Deutschland, 24 December 1968)

Do 31 vertical take-off transport plane for promising civilian uses. In the long term short and vertical take-off aircraft hold the key to the future of civil aviation too, as Lufthansa board member Professor Gerhard Hölje recently stressed in an interview about the European airbus.

Yet the financing of this civilian follow-on from a project that was in the first instance purely military in scope is far from assured. Either the Scientific Research or the Economic Affairs Ministry would have to help foot the bill. What is at stake is the salvation of what can be saved after the otherwise wasted investment of enormous sums of government money by means of purposeful and prompt commercial exploitation.

Americans appear on the scene

The Americans have, incidentally, already put in an appearance at Dornier's. Specialists sent over by America's National Aeronautics and Space Administration have test-flown the Do 31 to determine to what extent the present design could be put to civilian use—at city airports, for instance.

It remains to be seen whether or not the Do 31 too will prove a bad business for this country, but the Americans can hardly be blamed. It always takes two to strike a bargain, they say, and one of the two is bound to be the stooge.

Taken as a whole, the store of knowledge this country has gained about vertical take-off aircraft is undoubtedly enough to provide the basis of an entire range of civilian applications. Without a shadow of doubt a super-sonic vertical take-off airliner will arrive on the scene at some stage or other. The aircraft industry in this country is ideally suited to carry out research and development work.

Also without any doubt there will in 1978 be a demand for a short- and medium-haul vertical take-off airliner seating 100 to 120 and cruising at roughly 500 miles an hour. The only question at issue is: will it be design and built in Europe or will America, although behind-hand, technologically, take on the challenge and end up selling Europe what Europe has already designed?

The US government has already awarded its first contracts for vertical take-off aircraft to Boeing, civilian aircraft, let it be noted. It remains to be seen what will happen. Will this country have wasted thousands of millions of Marks of the taxpayers' money or will commercial success be achieved (and the aircraft industry in this country could certainly do with it)?

In the final analysis all depends on Bonn. This country is going to have to do business anyway. Will it strike a bargain or be at the receiving end?

(STUTTGARTER ZEITUNG, 3 December 1968)

Salt mine for oil storage tank

A battery for a battery

North-west of Bremerhaven an old salt mine is being pumped clear of salt to make an underground storage tank at the northern end of the oil pipeline to the Ruhr. The cavern that will be created is the largest of its kind in the world.

Over a period of twelve months water is to be pumped into the mine at pressure through nine boreholes 4,000 to 5,500 feet deep and pumped out again once it has swilled the workings well and truly out.

Crude oil is to be pumped into the 2,35-million-cubic-yards of galleries at the end of this year. The underground storage facilities will have cost about 45 million Marks. Oil bunkers of equal capacity would have cost more than three times as much to build.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung für Deutschland, 24 December 1968)

Elderly batteries have a tendency to give up the ghost in mid-winter. Motorists who have misgivings about their own batteries will be pleased to learn that Bosch have now introduced a long-storage battery set to bridge the gap when the inevitable happens. The battery is fully laden and is topped up from the accompanying container immediately before use.

(Hannoversche Post, 21 December 1968)

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Lübecker Nachrichten, 21 December 1965

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